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STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

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EDITORIAL COMMENT AND NEWS NOTES

COOPERATION IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

In order to further the program of elementary education in the state through closer professional relationships and through increased cooperation, the State Department of Education and the California Elementary School Principals' Association have carried on a cooperative program during the past year. Three major cooperative undertakings should be mentioned specifically.

Annual Regional Conferences

The length and breadth of California is too vast and the personnel of the group too great, to make one general conference for elementary school principals and district superintendents practical or profitable. The California Elementary School Principals' Association holds sectional meetings through the year to serve the interests of its organization. The State Department of Education has called six official conferences during the past year to coincide whenever possible with these association meetings. Time has been arranged for the business of the association and the conference program has been devoted to the presentation and discussion of topics vital to the instructional program in the elementary school.

The fall and winter conferences centered around a philosophy of elementary education and the purposes of the modern elementary school in California. In the spring meetings the principals and district superintendents considered the problems relating to the integration of subject matter in a progressive type of school program. These meetings were well attended and the interest and cooperation of the group were evident. The regional conference plan will be continued during the coming year.

California Journal of Elementary Education

This quarterly publication is in its second volume with the current issue. It has grown in size and in the excellence and variety of material since its appearance in August, 1932. It is the purpose of the editorial board of the California Journal of Elementary Education to present articles which have a direct bearing upon the problems confronting the elementary school principals and district superintendents at work in California elementary schools. Articles have been contributed to Volume I by administrators and professors in the

field of elementary education covering a variety of topics. cooperation of the California Elementary School Principals' Association has been solicited in the gathering of material suitable for publication. Many favorable comments as to the usefulness of the California Journal of Elementary Education have been received by the editorial board. It is hoped that the service of this publication will increase with the advent of Volume II.

A Study of the Status of the Elementary School Principalship in California

A statewide study has been undertaken at the request of the California Elementary School Principals' Association by a committee of principals working with the State Department of Education to determine the status of the elementary school principalship in California.

The cost of this undertaking is to be assumed by the Association and the direction and facilities of the State Department of Education used in collecting, tabulating, and interpreting the data obtained.

Two meetings have been held to determine the scope of the study, and the methods of collecting the data. Information on the following items is to be obtained by use of the questionnaire:

Classification of Schools Training of the Principal Certification Experience

Clerical Assistance Administrative Relationships Community Relationships Miscellaneous Data Relating to Personal and Economic Factors 1

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Other related studies are planned to be directed by the committee but to be made by selected graduate students interested in the field of elementary education.

Case studies of typical administrative relationships are to be made in a number of California cities. These studies will furnish detailed information as to the position of the elementary principal in representing school systems.

The data for this status study will be collected from every elementary school principal in schools having six or more teachers At least a year will be necessary to complete the study as outlined.

CALIFORNIA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION

Organization

The California Elementary School Principals' Association organized as a state association with five section organizations. The It sections correspond with those of the California Teachers Association

except that the Northern and the North Coast sections are combined. Membership in a section carries with it membership in the state association.

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To aid in the advancement of elementary education throughout the State of California.

To promote higher standards of training for elementary school principals and teachers.

To encourage research work in the field of elementary education.

To plan and sponsor legislation in line with the best interests of the elementary schools.

To provide opportunities for the elementary school principals of the state to meet and become better acquainted with their fellow workers.

To cooperate with other organizations interested in elementary education.

Program for 1933-34

Publication of the sixth yearbook of the association on Public Relations.

Publication of a News Bulletin to be called The California Elementary School Principal by which members of the association will be kept informed of its activities.

Cooperation with the State Department of Education in preparing materials for the California Journal of Elementary Education.

Sponsoring of a statewide study of the Status of the Elementary School Principalship in California, to be made by a large committee of principals assisted by the State Department of Education.

Promotion of section conferences of elementary school principals in which topics of special interest to them are discussed.

Encouragement of institute sessions designed primarily for elementary school principals.

Encouragement of study groups in city and county which meet regularly to study the problems of elementary education.

Encouragement of and cooperation with institutions of higher learning in providing summer conferences for elementary school principals.

Committees will study and report on credentials, legislation, tenure, research, relations to other professional organizations, and other topics.

Membership

This is the time when all friends of public schools must be united. It is hoped that every elementary school principal in this state will atio join the California Elementary School Principals' Association for the year 1933-34, thereby helping himself and the cause of education as represented by the elementary school.

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CONFERENCES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS

Continuing the policy of the past two years, conferences of elementary school principals and district superintendents will be called by the State Department of Education as follows:

Los Angeles October	28,	1933
BerkeleyNovember	r 4,	1933
FresnoNovembe	r 18,	1933
Santa AnaMarch	3,	1934
ChicoApril	7,	1934

These regional conferences will be held in conjunction with the sectional meetings of the California Elementary School Principals' Association.

The program to be presented will be practical in nature and time will be provided for round table discussions. It is hoped that every elementary school principal and district superintendent in the state will find it possible to attend one or more of the scheduled meetings during the coming year.

MANIFESTO OF PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

The Committee of the Progressive Education Association on Social and Economic Problems under the chairmanship of Professor George S. Counts of Teachers College, Columbia University, has recently issued a manifesto, which is being issued in pamphlet form under the heading, "A Call to the Teachers of the Nation." The manifesto appeals to the teachers of America "to emancipate themselves complete from the domination of the business interests of the nation."

Excerpts from the manifesto follow:

. . . the progressive minded teachers of the country must unite in a powerful organization, militantly devoted to the building of a better social order.

. . . . for all except the most favored, life is an endless battle either for the simple necessities or for social status founded on the acquisition and

display of property.

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Even during the much-vaunted period of prosperity ending in 1929, certain great industries, such as agriculture, coal and textiles, were in a state of chronic depression, and 60 per cent of the population were living below the level of comfort and decency.

exploited without regard for the future, the interests of property are placed above human rights, and the struggle for material gain tends to corrupt

the moral, the political, and the esthetic life of the nation.

If men must suffer, they should do so with heroism; if they need not, they should revolt. In the present age they should accept no apologies for a social system that fails to make full use, for the benefit of all, of the productive resources of the nation. Such a spirit should be bred in them from earliest infancy.

Capitalism, with its extremes of poverty and riches and its moral degradation of millions, makes an empty farce of our democratic professions

and dooms multitudes of children to lives of severe privation.

. . . (teachers) will have to forego not only the luxuries which are literally showered upon their more fortunate brothers and sisters born to wealth and privilege but even those things demanded by the laws of physical and mental health. Teachers can never be reconciled to a social order that even in the days of "prosperity" needlessly violates the deepest loyalties of their calling. Consequently, they must work boldly and without ceasing for a better social order.

This the teachers should never forget. Their (the teachers') loyalty, therefore, goes to the great body of the laboring population—to the farmers, the industrial workers, and the other members of the producing classes of the nation. They owe nothing to the present economic system, except to improve it; they owe nothing to any privileged caste, except to strip it of its privileges.

To serve the teaching profession of the country in this way should be one of the major purposes of the Progressive Education Association.

WHAT ATTITUDES AND SOCIAL QUALITIES ARE NEEDED IN CITIZENS TO HELP SOLVE OUR PROBLEMS¹

F. A. HENDERSON, City Superintendent of Schools, Santa Ana

The history in America of the attitude of the public toward education is well expressed in the following:

In former times education was conceived as a process of preparing men for the next world. That conception has long since been abandoned. After it, came an education of preparation for life in the midst of a material civilization, by which we have encourged the philosophy of ambition and the attitude of expectancy. Now we need an education for enjoyment and understanding, and the business of life shall give way to the art of living. Only so can the new leisure of a machine age contribute to the fineness of life.

The purpose of education, then, for at least a half century was the development of religious and political leaders, when the common people were possessed of the doubtful benefits of the so-called fundamentals, a little reading, a little writing, a little ciphering, and the trained mind was held in high esteem. Let us call this period the period of *educational reverence*.

With the development of commerce and the surge of invention in America, came the period which has continued for nearly a hundred years, the period from which we are now emerging. For a hundred years past we have been developing mechanical and financial leaders. During this period we have founded powerful financial institutions, and have laid up vast fortunes. Our educational efforts have been those of the pioneer; we are stamped with the attitude of carving a fortune from the wilderness. During this period we have come to realize some of our dreams. Not one of us but can conjure up the picture of a humble, honest, and pathetic mother or father who desired an education for the children in order that "they may not have to toil as I have toiled." In education all our outlook has been toward greater opportunities and greater leisure for our children. Anyone who has sat up half the night as I have done finishing Bess Streeter Aldrich's A Lantern in Her Hand, that remarkable portraval of the story of the pioneer mother and the realization of her dream at last in her grandchildren, will understand what is meant by the eternal struggle for our children. May we call this period the period of educational utility.

Where has it brought us? Today, a portion at least of our dream is realized and we discover that it is dust and ashes in our mouths,

¹ Presented at the San Diego Round Table Conference on April 28, 1933.

for today our anxiety is not that our children shall not be compelled to labor, but our fear is that they be denied the opportunity to work at all. Our ambitions for our children are just as effective, just as persistent today as before, but their directions must be changed.

In Greece there was one freeman to a hundred slaves. The freeman could devote himself to art, music, literature, sculpture, and government, while his hundreds of underlings toiled. Today in our land all are freemen and the toil is relegated to the mechanical man.

In the process man is again enslaved.

For decades hundreds of the privileged have been idle. Labor and planning done long before carried over for them, and, like the lilies, they toiled not, neither did they spin. Then came a great depression, and other thousands and millions became idle, and a great furore arose. We now realize that either these must remain constantly unemployed while others work, or in the leveling process all must share in work as well as in leisure.

All work and no play for the worker meant denial of his right to individual development. All play and no purposeful work for the privileged, on the other hand, meant a withdrawal of his opportunity for fullest realization. Idleness is disastrous, ultimately just as disastrous to the individual in enforced idleness as to the individual who through accumulation of wealth need not work. Society is, or should be, concerned with idleness. Society should bring it about that every man shall have work which he must do, and shall have leisure which he may enjoy.

The utilitarian type of education has brought us to our present impasse. Skills and facts have too long been the exclusive content of our educational program. Specialization has, in many of our great universities, been so rampant that general culture was almost entirely absent. Too long have we stressed the statistics which show the money value of a college degree, and have neglected to emphasize

the spiritual values.

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am hs, In the marts of trade our financial and political geniuses have constantly struggled onward to a bright and shining goal ahead. Even in education nearly all our efforts have been concerned with the business of dealing in futures. Most people defined success as the acquisition of wealth and power. The present, even in our school curricula, becomes a means of arriving at the future, and today is of value only because it leads to tomorrow. But of late "we have learned that men who took princely incomes from society's treasure chest were but sorry pretenders to the throne." We have learned that our financial idols had feet of clay. Plato said long ago, "Ruin comes when the trader, whose heart is lifted up by wealth, becomes ruler."

The time has now come for a shift in emphasis of educational functions, a shift to a new social order to which is presented the problem of adjusting the mechanical freedom which we have attained to the new leisure which it has brought about. We are in the midst of a revolution. There is a conflict between entrenched wealth, the price system, profit taking, on the one hand, and the fundamental American belief of an equal chance for all, educational, social, economic on the other.

Attacks have been made and are still being made upon physical education, art, music, home economics, and scientific agriculture, and we are admonished to return to the day of the ox cart and the tow path. But in America we can not go back to our primitive methods of living; no more can we return to the abstractions of our early education.

The machine age demands better standards of cultural and avocational life, and this we cannot give without educational expansion. The perfection of the machine and the perfecting of avocational education must go forward hand in hand, else idleness, not leisure profitably employed, will drag us down. We may expect expansion rather than retrenchment.

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Again, the new emphasis must direct our educational efforts not to the acquisition of wealth and power, but toward social ideals and modes of living. We must be more concerned with social, economic, religious, and cultural relationships than with the perpetuation of institutions which may have outlived their usefulness. "The school's main business must be social integration rather than business success." The fruits of education must be more largely public than private.

To carry out this ideal in the actual schoolroom itself, we must substitute cooperation for competition. For marks, credits, promotions, honors, degrees we must have an appreciation of intrinsic rather than extrinsic values. Suzallo states:

The pursuit of school distinctions which involve odious comparisons with most of out neighbors is strong motivation for sharpening the intellectual fangs and claws of a few, but it discourages the many and leaves all who learn in such a regimen without adequate education in the appreciative ways needed for democratic cooperation. \(^1\)

The schools face the tremendous task of this new day. They are just now suffering a superficial and sinister criticism by demagogues seeking political advantage. We want less of this but we need more of intelligent interest in any questioning of our schools on the part of the public.²

So, from the citizens, in place of some of the attitudes of suspicion and mistrust builded up of late, we must secure a cooperation and a sympathy which only can bring us out of this slough of despondency.

¹ Henry Suzallo, A Program of Tomorrow. Washington: National Education Association, February, 1932.

² From a syndicated article by Glenn Frank.

We are not speaking of finances, although this is important, for, as someone has said, "economy is not of necessity an enemy of improvement." But even in finance we must assert the fact that "taxes are not paid to support teachers, but to build a community life."

So, we need from the public an appreciation of the avocational and the cultural. We need, ourselves, to be firmly convinced of our ideal mission. A supine acquiescence to a demand for a return to "fundamentals" is eloquent proof that we have never fully convinced our patrons nor ourselves, that true education is not to be found in didactics, but in attitudes and appreciation.

We need in our citizens a willingness to face facts and to permit us to teach facts. Give us the right and the privilege to teach the

truth, the boon of unhampered thought.

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The university, through long custom and tradition, is able to study and discuss questions from all their aspects, but this is not true of other schools, not even in our junior colleges, where, in California within recent months, teachers have been severely criticized for having the temerity to discuss frankly the problem of the public utility and the concentration of great wealth and power.

Can we teach the abandonment of free competition and private profit? Is it too much to hope that we may expect the citizen to see the general as against the private good; that he (and we) shall learn the ethics of success founded on justice and morality; that he (and we) shall learn to strive for social not personal welfare; that he (and we) take no unfair advantage of opportunities in the social order that are absolutely denied others; that we all shall be so concerned with social, econom c, religious, and cultural relationships that we shall be no more obligated to our own particular school or creed or color than we are to every other man in human society?

Is it educational heresy to suggest that we cease to look forward so intently and stop to look about us, "to concentrate attention on the moment, the experience that confronts us now, to relish it, to accept it as an enjoyable scene in the total drama of life. That is

the kind of culture that we lack." and produce and seed on will blue a

scribe? Frue it is that a few outstanding champions of the old order cemain among our leading cducational thinkers. And true also it is that most of us as yet render lip scrylec only to the new pleas and ourposes. Nevertheless it can not be denied that educational thinking is crystallizing about a few fundamental concepts and slowly. The tend of the concepts and slowly also the concepts and concepts and slowly also the concepts and concep

THE NEW EMPHASIS ON THE CULTURAL SUBJECTS 1

PERCY R. DAVIS, City Superintendent of Schools, Santa Monica

In his The Epic of America, James Truslow Adams says:2

To clear the muddle in which our education is at present, we shall obviously have to define our values. Unless we can agree on what the values of life are, we clearly have no goal in education, and if we have no goal, the discussion of methods is futile.

John Dewey begins his "Inglis Lecture of 1931" as follows:

It is unnecessary to say that we are in the midst of great educational uncertainty, one probably unparalleled at any past time.

Certainly, education, together with all of the institutions of civilization, seems to be in a state of profound confusion. As one surveys the modern scene he is inclined to agree with Aristophanes, the Greek, when he exclaims, "Whirl is king, having driven out Zeus." In every field of human activity, the old is giving way to the new with bewildering rapidity. New ideals, new standards, new purposes, new methods follow one upon the other in mankind's endeavor to meet the new problems and the new needs of this age of speed and change and complexity.

Few would dispute the fundamental assumption in our topic that a new social order, a new civilization vastly different from any of the past, is in the making and that with it are arising new demands upon the individual and upon society. New demands call for new equipment, a new and different set of purposes and ideals, and educational philosophy and methodology adequate to meet the needs of

the modern individual and the modern society.

But, is the confusion in our educational thinking as real as it seems to be? Despite the fact that there is less modification of educational practices and procedures because of it, than some of us would like to see, has there not been emerging in the few years past a philosophy of education to meet the modern needs to which the great majority of our profession willingly and even enthusiastically subscribe? True it is that a few outstanding champions of the old order remain among our leading educational thinkers. And true also it is that most of us as yet render lip service only to the new ideals and purposes. Nevertheless, it can not be denied that educational thinking is crystallizing about a few fundamental concepts and slowly.

Presented at the San Diego Round Table Conference on April 28, 1933.
 James Truslow Adams, The Epic of America. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1931. p. 40.
 John Dewey, The Way Out of Educational Confusion. Inglis Lecture, 1931. Cambridge, Mss achusetts: Harvard University Press, 1931, p. 1.

surely, and on a wide scale modifying and adapting practices to conform to these new concepts.

There are many statements of these concepts but let me give them as summarized in a recent issue of this Journal. With due acknowledgment to John Dewey, Miss Heffernan says:

Modern education aims to develop the whole child. It concerns itself with growth and change in the many-sided aspects of child nature. Not only must education provide for the adequate mental development of the child, but provision for the physical, emotional, esthetic, and spiritual progress of the child constitutes equally significant problems.

In general, the aim of education is to provide opportunity for the fullest development of the thought, feeling, and conduct of each individual, to the end that he may realize his potential possibilities for the greater good of

himself and society.

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Translated into specific purposes this aim is restated as follows:

Purpose 1. To develop a sound body, normal mental attitudes, and controlled emotional reactions.

Purpose 2. To develop an understanding of social relationships and a willingness to participate in them in ways conducive to the progress of society.

Purpose 3. To develop the individual as completely as possible. It is not the similarity one individual possesses to all others, but the unique differences, which make possible valuable service to the social group.

Purpose 4. To cultivate habits of critical thinking. (The ability and the technique by which to meet new problems.)

Purpose 5. To acquire command of the common knowledges and skills essential to effective living.2

And last but not least in importance is:

Purpose 6. To develop appreciation for and desire to seek beauty in its many manifestations.

The school aims to develop an ever increasing capacity for appreciation of beauty, fineness, and the worthy contributions of all artists to our national culture.

The school should develop and stimulate imagination and creative power. The creative impulse expresses itself most freely in music, art, literature, and dramatics, but it can express itself in numberless forms.

Keen sensitiveness to beauty in its myriad forms gives substance and richness to life. We are in a world of beauty, immersed in beauty, as Emerson puts it, and most of us are missing the beauty around us that might be such a source of solace and joy in helping us to meet the problems of life. Our great cultural inheritance should not find us oblivious. Complete development for children must certainly include what is great and beautiful in the world of art—that world in which all may possess the treasure who have eyes to see and ears to hear.3

¹ Helen Heffernan, "A Statement of the Philosophy and the Purposes of the Elementary School." California Journal of Elementary Education, February, 1933. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, Vol. 1, No. 3, p. 110.

* Ibid: pp. 110-112.

* Ibid: p. 113.

Many have presented to us this philosophy of education, in different wording, to be sure, but with the same essential meaning. The objectives ring familiarly in our ears, even much of the wording. The whole child, the sound body, normal mental attitudes, controlled emotional responses, social understanding and participation, individual development, appreciation and creative expression. All are old friends. Health, physical and mental; character; culture; citizenship; have become our predominant educational objectives. Let me repeat, the confusion in educational thinking is not as real as it seems to be. Despite the opinion of James Truslow Adams to the contrary, the educational profession is defining its objectives in no unmistakable terms. A type of education to meet the needs of the changing social order is developing and in its aims and objectives we find the key to the new emphasis in the teaching of the so-called cultural subjects.

The first and most fundamental question, which must be answered is: Shall the school increase its emphasis upon the so-called cultural subjects? Shall there be more time and attention given to the fields of music, art, dramatics, literature, and those phases of other subjects having to do with the emotional and spiritual side of man's nature?

In my opinion the answer is emphatically "Yes." All about us, with a few exceptions, is a man-created world of ugliness and sordidness. Materialism reigns supreme and spiritual values seem subordinated. Beauty, such as there is, seems to be permitted not for itself alone, but because it has commercial value and will return larger dividends. Jazz claims devotees by the thousands; the beautiful symphony a few hundreds. The masterpiece of literature or of poetry has given way to the Sunday magazine supplement and the corner magazine stand with its flashy and sordid periodicals of sex appeal, crime, and impossible adventure. The movies and the radio have too frequently contributed to demoralizing taste.

Such emotional experience as our people undergo seems to be largely of the type that is destructive of the finer higher things of life; devoid of inspiration toward wholesome, well balanced living disintegrating rather than re-creating. Can a culture such as prevails in America today serve otherwise than to destroy higher idealism in individual and civic life; submerge spiritual values; foster evil rather than good; and further develop materialism, greed, and crime!

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Writing to the Art Teachers Association of Southern California, former President Coolidge said: 1

If we could surround ourselves with forms of beauty, the evil things of life would tend to disappear, and our moral standards would be raised. Through our contact with the Beautiful, we see more of the Truth and are brought into closer contact with the Infinite.

¹ Calvin Coolidge, Address delivered before the American Federation of Arts.

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Character training and citizenship building alone, if no other purpose were in view, demand that a program of education to meet modern needs place a renewed emphasis upon raising the standards of the cultural life of America.

But there are other and important purposes. Not least of these is the fact that our people face an era of increased leisure. Herein lies great danger to the welfare of our whole social order under the present state of idealism and culture. Herein, also, lie the greatest possibilities for growth for our people, both as individuals and as a group. Here is the opportunity for maintaining the equilibrium, renewing the zest for life, restoring the sanity of living and renewing purposes to make life worth living. Recreation means just that—recreating. It is defined as "refreshment of the strength and spirits after toil." Leisure is a gift to us for that purpose, an opportunity for renewing and restoring. But how is it used, by and large?

We see on every hand men, women, and children who have scarcely a hint of the intrinsic good of leisure. We see people who fill leisure with nothing but mental and physical futility, some who merely serve enslaving habits, and still others who crowd it out of life by merely extending the time of an already sordid job. Many persons avoid leisure, others never recognize it when it appears, and some use it for the deadly monotony of soul-killing noise, unceasing devotion to triviality, or mere useless physical, mental or spiritual loafing. Worst of all, in justification of the proverb as to idle hands, many use leisure for the concoction of evil. Neglect of the teaching of wise uses of leisure leads not merely to stagnation but to mental and spiritual starvation and frequently to crime. ¹

Our leading thinkers are pointing out to us constantly the crying need in our society for training in wholesome living, for the development of well-rounded personalities, for the achievement by our people of emotional balance, for the supremacy in our lives of values other than material. Through the inspiration and ennobling influence of creative expression and appreciation in the cultural fields America can rise above the pettiness and sordidness of Main Street and look forward to a brighter and happier day.

Our next task is to point out briefly the effect which these newer educational concepts growing out of the needs of the changing social order are having and must have upon the practices of teaching in these fields.

In analyzing the aims or objectives in almost any modern course of study one is struck with the thought that there are two sets of objectives either expressed or implied. Call them primary and secondary, immediate and remote, or direct and indirect as you like. In the light of modern educational psychology there are in every lesson two kinds of learnings taking place.

¹ John M. Brewer, Education as Guidance. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, p. 383

There are first those learnings which the teacher has as her immediate objective, but there are, in addition and of equal or even greater importance as far as the learner is concerned, a whole group of concomitant learnings which may vary from individual to individual, and of much of which the teacher may be unaware. Little attention has been given to these in the past, but today, with her larger point of view of the developing philosophy of education and the newer objectives, the good teacher constantly asks herself: "What are these children learning aside from the subject matter of the lesson?" "Are they acquiring normal mental attitudes; responding with satisfactory emotional reactions; developing group consciousness and social responsibility; growing in appreciation for the good, the beautiful and the true?"

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Through these so-called concomitant learnings are the major objectives of a modern educational program achieved. Hence the importance of the manner of learning, frequently if not usually more important than that which is learned. The new emphasis in the teaching of these subjects, as in others, must be upon method of teaching. Especially is this true of art, primarily an appreciation subject calling for a high degree and type of emotional response. Even the direct objectives of an art lesson can be realized only through careful attention to the manner of lesson presentation.

Forest Grant, Director of Art for the New York City Schools, in a recently published course of study in art which has gained wide attention, lists art objectives in public schools as follows:

- 1. To engender love of beauty.
- 2. To develop good taste.
- 3. To enrich life and train for leisure.
- 4. To gratify a desire to create.
- 5. To encourage talent.

No doubt he senses, though he does not so state, that there are two types of values in his objectives, direct and indirect. If one engenders a love of beauty, he is indirectly creating deep and abiding spiritual values and building character. If he develops good taste, he is also developing personality, social values, citizenship, and character. If he enriches life and trains for leisure, again he is building social values, wholesome lives and mental attitudes, social conconsciousness, character, and spirituality. If he develops the desire to create, the same is true and in addition he has provided the individual with a rich and constructive experience and an opportunity for a satisfying emotional expression which may well spell the difference between a balanced and unbalanced life, between normality and success or futility and failure.

These things he can achieve, however, both the direct and the indirect values in his objectives, only if he builds his teaching technique about the newer type of classroom procedure in which creative activities, more freedom of expression, purposive planning by children, and a clear recognition of the mental and emotional activity through which appreciations are acquired play a larger part.

In the realm of the esthetic and the appreciative, procedures should be truly child-centered. We are dealing here with those more subtle manifestations of individuality which we call spiritual. Formality and rigidity can not but inhibit and crush the fragile and

perishable type of responses we are seeking.

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Next, if education is life, if it is natural growth and development, no subject should be taught in isolation. If we would follow these objectives, if we seek mental balance and the integrated personality, we will teach these subjects as an integral part of all school activities and use life situations to give point and purpose to the simple creative urges of the child. Art, music, literature, dramatics, and even esthetic and folk dancing lend themselves readily to correlation. If we would vitalize and make permanent to the child the values inherent in them, we must cease dragging them in as something external. Rather, we must skilfully cause them to live as a part of the child's daily life and interest. Only in this way can we make sure that genuine and worth while experiences in these fields are taking place.

Such correlation, however, must not be an artificial correlation. Too often, art, for example, is integrated with other subjects in a manner which makes it a mere hand maiden to the point where art values and art objectives are not realized, and the art experiences for children are harmful rather than beneficial. Art can be successfully fused with other school studies, but it is in itself of vital importance. Its values must be maintained and its objectives achieved.

With care and a due consideration of relative values, however, art, as well as the other cultural subjects, can be made to function admirably in a well rounded integrated school program. That it should do so to become a vital part of child growth and experience there can be little question.

Then, too, if the nurturing of the creative impulse and the development of the love of beauty are fundamental aims we must subordinate "technique." No better way of killing both the creative impulse and appreciation of beauty exists than to attempt to harness the early esthetic responses of childhood to a formal technique. In the beginning no technique is necessary, and as the child's needs for better modes of expression become more urgent and more apparent to

him, he will ask for whatever techniques are needed to meet his problems. One emphasis to be highly recommended is to reverse the procedure of much of our current teaching by allowing the period of technical training to await the development of the child's need. Stress, first of all, originality and creative imagination. Meet the need for improved technique when it arises.

In brief, then, the needs of the changing social order call for an increased emphasis upon the whole field of cultural subjects. The new philosophy of education and the new knowledge of child psychology demand that the teaching of these subjects be truly child-centered and a vital part of a complete, well-rounded, integrated program; and that training in technique must grow out of child need.

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THE CHILD OF HIGH 101

NOEL KEYS, Associate Professor of Education, University of California

It has been said that no really difficult problem was ever solved by a strictly average mind. For any lasting solution to the crying issues of poverty and unemployment, of suffering and disease, of class strife and international war, we must look to the gifted few who are endowed by nature with more than ordinary intelligence. We must look to nature, for intelligence is something which no scientist or social worker has discovered a means of creating.

But if we cannot create intelligence, we may yet do much to prevent the waste of it. If we can learn to recognize the child of high native ability, we may be able to direct the activities of our homes, schools, and social agencies so as to aid and encourage him to develop his possibilities to the full. And here science can be of service, for psychology has devised tests by means of which it is possible to gauge the mental level of a child of any age. Since the intelligence quotient remains much the same throughout life, we may even predict within broad limits what his intellectual capacities are likely to be as an adult.

Dr. Catherine Cox, ¹ after an intensive analysis of the life histories of three hundred of the most eminent men of the past five centuries, has estimated the IQ of each one on the basis of his record in childhood and youth. Her conclusion is that the true average IQ of this group was "not below 155." In other words, "the extraordinary genius who achieves the highest eminence is also the gifted individual whom intelligence tests may discover in childhood."

The objection may be raised that great geniuses such as Goethe, Michelangelo, Newton, and Pitt, all of whom are estimated by Miss Cox to have had IQ's of 200 or more, are much too rare to present any widespread problem in our public schools. This is undoubtedly true. We may not look for more than one Edison or one Einstein in a generation. On the other hand, one child in every hundred has an IQ of 130 or higher, and one in every two or three hundred an IQ of 140. And it is to this group of the outstandingly bright that we must look for the overwhelming majority of leaders in virtually every field of activity which calls for keen and sustained thinking.

¹ The present article has been slightly amplified by Professor Keys from the text of a radio address delivered by him over station KPO on April 29th.

² Catherine Cox et al. "The Early Mental Traits of Three Hundred Geniuses." Genetic Studies of Genius, Vol. II. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1926.

SOME "WONDER CHILDREN" AS ADULTS

It is interesting, for example, to note how many of the individuals to whom the country under President Roosevelt has turned in this time of crisis, the so-called "Brains Trust" of the Washington government, were noted for their intelligence during their school and college days. Professor A. A. Berle, appointed by Roosevelt as Railroad Credit Manager of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to pull the railroads of this country out of impending bankruptcy, was one of those "infant prodigies" whom it is fashionable to disparage. Entering Harvard University at the age of 13, he graduated with honors at 17. Dr. Raymond Moley, Assistant Secretary of State, and commonly recognized as Roosevelt's closest adviser on governmental problems, the shrewd deviser of the system of "grants of power" from Congress to the President and many other far-reaching measures of the present administration, was a notably precocious child. Time of May 8 recounts that he was "reading Ivanhoe at 7, discussing the Trojan Wars at 8," and graduated from college at 19. Likewise, three of the four famous Dawes brothers. Charles, ambassador to Great Britain and inventor of the Dawes Plan for Germany: Henry, who was Comptroller of the Currency under President Harding; and Rufus, President and prime mover of the Chicago World's Fair of 1933, all graduated from college at the age of 19.

Every scientific study of childhood intelligence and adult genius goes to indicate that careers of outstanding achievement such as these are actually far more typical of those who are remarkable for intelligence in boyhood, than is the occasional child "prodigy" who fails conspicuously as an adult. But the many who accomplish great things are overlooked or forgotten, while the occasional failure is cited ad nauseam in press and conversation as irrefutable evidence that "bright children never turn out well."

DIFFICULTIES IN RECOGNIZING THE BRIGHT

No small part of the problems which arise in the management of bright children grow out of the difficulty of judging intelligence correctly apart from scientific tests. Needless to say, if all children were as remarkable as their parents think, our schoolrooms would be crowded with infant geniuses. Yet it often happens that a highly intelligent child is grossly underestimated by his own family. Not long ago a professional man consulted me, much concerned over his son. He said that the boy was being refused promotion in school because he was too dull for his grade. The father explained that he knew his son was not at all bright but he did believe that he was of almost average intelligence and should be capable of promotion. Upon testing this boy I found him to have an IQ of 125. In other words he

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was brighter than 97 out of 100 children. His parents had misjudged him merely because they were constantly comparing him with his older brother and sister, who were much brighter even than he. When the parents learned the truth of the matter, the family's attitude toward him was changed, and the boy himself was saved from what threatened to become a serious feeling of inferiority.

School teachers are likely to be better judges of intelligence than are parents, because teachers have a wider sampling of children to compare. Yet even teachers are often badly mistaken. In his monumental survey of gifted children in California, Dr. Lewis Terman found by actual experiment that he was more likely to discover the brightest member of a class by merely selecting the youngest pupil than by taking the one whom the teacher picked as the brightest.

It is safe to say that nothing short of a good intelligence test administered by a skilled examiner can be trusted to reveal a child's actual IQ. Certain signs, however, may serve as helpful indications. Very bright children, for example, usually develop somewhat early in infancy. As a group they learn to sit, to stand, and to walk perhaps a month younger than average and at only half the age of feebleminded children. But individual differences are great, and one in every three or four bright children will be slower than normal in these respects.

The age of talking is a better indication. Children above 140 IQ average several words by 11 or 12 months of age as against 18 months for normal children, and over three years for the feebleminded. Even among youngsters as bright as this, however, there is now and then one who does not talk before 18 months.

Reading is probably the best of all early signs. It is not uncommon for an extremely bright child to "pick up" reading with compara-

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Certain childhood interests appear with unusual frequency in accounts of very bright children. For example, an early interest in numbers and in the telling of time, in clocks, calendars, and the like is characteristic. Maps and globes, charts and diagrams often possess a fascination greater than that which pictures hold for the average child. Interest in words as words is especially suggestive. The very bright child is apt to "discover" the dictionary with enthusiasm and to continue to consult it with more than ordinary frequency.

Reading of all kinds is, indeed, easily the favorite pastime of bright children of both sexes. They commonly average upward of an hour's reading each day for pleasure alone. But the idea that bright children are mere bookworms is far from the truth. Second only to reading is their interest in games of many kinds. In their play they are likely to prefer organized sports with definite rules, and points to

be scored rather than mere activity for its own sake.

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Bright girls are particularly apt to be marked by a distaste for such ladylike recreations as dolls, sewing, and playing house, and to show a decided inclination toward activities usually regarded as masculine. One of the brightest girls of my acquaintance, a child with an IQ above 170, in high fifth grade at the age of eight, is able to play the harp extremely well. In her spare time she writes imaginative stories in excellent prose, and executes oil paintings from nature with unmistakable talent. Yet when asked what she liked best to do, she mentioned none of these interests. Instead, she declared with obvious enthusiasm that she liked best to go to her grandfather's ranch to play with the dogs and goats and to ride on the ponies. When pressed as to her second choice, she named "playing baseball with the boys." She explained that she was the only girl on the team, as "the boys will not let the other girls play with them."

In school, these children usually find it easy to make creditable grades. The majority get A's in at least half their subjects. Yet their attitude toward school work is likely to be lukewarm. This may be partly a result of their outside activities, but in many cases it clearly reflects the fact that the work of their grade is too easy to arouse their interest. Habits of dawdling and indifference are early established.

SOME COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS

Perhaps the most outstanding service which Terman has rendered the bright child in his great work, Genetic Studies of Genius¹, is his thorough-going disproof of the popular misconceptions regarding these individuals. Outstanding leaders in any walk of life become, by reason of their position, a target for the attacks of envy and malice. This has been all too often the fate of bright children as well; though in their case criticisms have frequently been due largely to ignorance of the facts.

Thus it has been charged that the gifted tend to be neurotic, emotionally unstable, and mentally unbalanced. Terman has shown, on the contrary, that children above 140 IQ are typically not inferior but markedly superior in nervous and emotional control. This was true not only by the ratings of teachers and of competent physicians but by every other test which could reasonably be applied. So far from being characteristically conceited, the bright child proved far more given to underestimating his own attainments than was the average pupil in his grade.

Popular imagination has caricatured the gifted child as undersized, nearsighted, and generally below average physically, but the doctors who have examined the hundreds of gifted children studied

¹ L. M. Terman et al., Genetic Studies of Genius. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press. Vol. I. Mental and Physical Traits of a Thousand Gifted Children. 1925, Vol. III. The Promise of Youth. 1930.

are agreed that these youngsters are at least average and in most respects distinctly superior on every point of comparison in size, health, and physical strength. We have, too, the figures of a large life insurance company to attest that men who win honors in their college studies have in later life an average death rate nearly 20 per cent lower than the athletes from the same universities.

In all such comparisons it must be understood, of course, that we are speaking of averages only; for gifted individuals can be found all the way from the most nervous to the most stable, and from the frailest to the most robust.

SCHOOL ADJUSTMENTS OF THE GIFTED

One of the most difficult problems confronting parents and school administrators is that of how to adjust the gifted boy or girl to a school system planned throughout for children of only median ability. It must be remembered that, to the best of our present knowledge, children above 130 or 140 IQ are as different from and superior to the average child as the average child is superior to the feebleminded. Yet there is on every hand a widespread prejudice against advancing a pupil "ahead of his age." To some school administrators the number of years a child has lived appears to be the one all-important fact about him. I recently had occasion to examine a bright boy, not unlike a number of others who have come to my attention. On three different tests of intelligence this boy measured 15 years in mental age. In height, in weight, and on tests of muscular strength, he equaled the normal thirteen-year-old. On a scaled test of general information, his score was higher than that of the average adult citizen. Yet because he had not passed his tenth birthday, his parents and teachers were holding him back in the fifth grade with normal nine and ten-year-olds lest they "push him beyond his years." One sometimes wonders that we do not insist on every nine-year-old child wearing nine-year-old shoes, regardless of the size or shape of his feet.

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Uni-The One of the most serious difficulties in the way of rapid promotion for gifted children is the objection to their entering college or university many years younger than their classmates. Fortunately, each year sees a growing number of boys and girls completing high school under age, so that bright students need no longer feel altogether lonely. Twenty years ago a student who finished the senior year of high school at 15 or 16 was good for an article in the local paper as something of a prodigy; but in last year's graduating class at Oakland High School approximately one out of every eight students was sixteen or under. On the Berkeley campus alone, the University of California now admits each year over 180 Freshmen who are 16 years of age or less.

UNDER-AGE STUDENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

A recently completed survey 1 indicates that students entering the University of California under 16½ years of age make a much better than average showing in scholarship and with respect to academic distinctions of all kinds. They take part in a somewhat greater number of student activities of an extra-curricular nature, and tend to pursue post-graduate and professional studies further than students who enter at 17 or over. They rate their physical health as undergraduates considerably better than their older classmates estimate theirs, and the great majority express themselves as satisfied with their experience as undergraduates from the standpoint of social adjustments and general happiness as well.

There are, however, certain undeniable social handicaps for those who enter college at 15 or younger, particularly in the case of the boys. The chances of membership on men's athletic teams are only about two-thirds as great for these youngsters as for the average. Membership in social fraternities is also less common, and about one in every four states that he feels himself at a definite social disadvantage and less happily adjusted than the general run of his fellow students.²

If all children were promoted in proportion to their ability to do the work, the number of those entering university at 15 or under would obviously be many times what it is at present. If this practice became sufficiently common, it is quite possible that the disadvantages at present experienced would largely disappear. Pending the advent of that happy day, however, it seems clear that the individual child of unusual intelligence will often suffer much unhappiness if his progress through the grades and high school is accelerated by more than two years.

SPECIAL CLASSES FOR THE BRIGHT

To prevent such excessively rapid promotion and at the same time keep the brightest youngsters usefully and happily occupied at work suited to their abilities, no better solution has been found than some form of ability grouping with special classes for the gifted. Such provision is needed particularly in elementary and junior high school, for in senior high the bright pupils tend to elect somewhat different courses from the slow in any case. Most of all, perhaps, is it needed in the large public schools of our cities, for, paradoxical as it may seem, parochial schools and the small, ungraded, country classrooms

¹ Noel Keys. "The Under-age Student in a Large University." Proceedings of the Northern California Council for the Education of Exceptional Children. 1933.

² Ethel C. West. "A Study of Under-age Students Entering the University of California." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of California. 1992.

commonly offer the superior child a much better chance to proceed at his own gait than do our strictly regimented and graded city systems.

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For every thousand American children, there are on the average at least 30 who have IQ's of 125 or higher. This means that a typical city school system enrolling as many as three or four thousand elementary pupils will have enough extremely bright children to make three full-sized classes: one for grades one and two, another for grades three and four, and a third for grades five and six. Of these three, the last named is the most essential. No expensive special equipment is required. There need not even be an increase in the total teaching staff. Nothing is necessary, in fact, save competent instructors and the privilege for these children of being placed with others sufficiently like themselves to work well together. Under these circumstances teaching can proceed at a pace suited to their abilities, and the curriculum can be enriched by the addition of such subjects as prove desirable to keep pupils actively interested and learning.

This privilege of ability grouping is one which we are increasingly giving to our mentally deficient pupils. A survey of special education in California in 1931 shows 455 teachers in public school classes for the subnormal, not counting the large institutions maintained by the state. The same survey showed just one-tenth as many teachers in special classes for bright children. Yet very bright children are as numerous as the feebleminded, and infinitely more important for the future of society.

¹ Evelyn Clement. "The Status of Special Education in California." Second Year Book of Northern California Council for the Education of Exceptional Children, 1932. p. 77. The figures are for the 17 counties and 24 cities reporting.

HOW CAN THE AUDITORIUM FUNCTION MOST EFFECTIVELY IN THE MODERN SCHOOL?

ELIZABETH SANDS, Principal, Second Street School, Los Angeles

One of the most significant and promising developments in a rapidly changing educational program today is that concerned with the so-called extra-curricular activities. Education of the new day is by no means confined to the classroom. The many educational opportunities outside of the classroom are being seized upon by those who recognize their value. This rapid development is in line with the newer ideas and ideals of education, namely: that the school must stand for something besides scholarship, important as that is.

If we are educating today for intelligent citizenship we must be concerned not only with the mental but also with the social, physical, and spiritual phases of our children's existence. One of the most effective aids in working out a modern educational program is to be found in the activities centered in the school assembly or auditorium

period.

The school assembly had its beginning in the short opening and closing exercises held in all colonial schools. These exercises consisted of Bible reading, a religious song, and prayer. Later they broadened to include reading of essays, speaking pieces, and carrying on simple debates. Still later came the longer period on Friday afternoon devoted to literary programs or rhetoricals, out of which finally grew the present elementary school assemblies. Now, practically all schools recognize this period and make some provision for its contribution to the educational program.

In the early assemblies which were of the moralizing type, the principal was the sole performer. He was entirely responsible for the program. Later, other members of the faculty participated. Still later, student participation in organization and production characterized the program. Today, we are launching into another period of development which includes audience participation. We are attempting to have the entire audience participate in the program rather than

merely sit and listen to it.

An analysis of the school assembly in the informal school indicates five outstanding values, namely:

- 1. It has great ethical value.
- 2. It has inspirational value.
- 3. It has a socializing influence on the entire school.
- 4. It provides the children with an opportunity for expression.
- 5. It mirrors the life of the school.

The school assembly should be a place where all of the children, large and small, come together on a common meeting ground. It is a place where all may share or contribute the choicest and best that may be of value to the entire group. It is a place where school spirit may be developed through the discussion of school ideals and the carrying out of school projects. In fact it may be made one of the most potent and effective activities in the entire school program.

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Now comes the question, "How can the assembly be made to function most effectively in the modern school?" First, the principal must have a carefully worked out plan of organization which will include scheduling, promoting, and developing the assembly program. His program of organization must include charging responsibility to those who are capable of assuming it. Sometimes, this is most effectively carried on by an assembly committee of teachers. The principal must demand results worth the time and energy invested. An important task of the committee is the arrangement of a schedule which will allow for any readjustments that may be necessary.

The programs in the elementary school should be flexible. They should be interesting and varied, reflecting the many phases of school life and activity worked into appropriate programs. Ideally, there should be wide participation on the part of the pupils. In many schools the pupils manage all the details of the assembly, taking care of the stage and lighting properties, announcing and introducing the various numbers of the program. This should not be carried to extremes, however, as one of the objectives of the assembly is the education of the audience as well as the performers. Here, careful supervision by the teachers is necessary.

Another important factor which should be considered in any discussion on the subject of school assemblies is that of keeping order in the audience. No elementary principal who has sponsored this activity needs to draw much on his imagination to appreciate this problem. Many of us have been guilty of insisting upon unnatural behavior for these meetings in order to impress favorably any visitors who might be present. There are still some principals who require the children to march into the auditorium in a formal way, stand at attention, and remain so until the command, "Be seated," is given. The same rigid discipline carries over into the program which is attended with great tension and strain.

Most of us agree that children are meeting a life situation here which may be treated in the same manner as one meets a similar situation upon entering or leaving the church, theater, or any public building. It is not easy for children of mixed ages to do this in a natural and orderly fashion but it is certainly one of the objectives to be striven for in this particular phase of our school life. If the

programs are interesting and worth while the matter of discipline or order will take care of itself. This sounds easy but such conduct cannot be attained in a day, a week, or even a year since all children are not constituted by nature to be good members of an audience These must be trained to become so by developing worthy ideals, attitudes, and habits.

In schools where these habits have not been developed or do not naturally exist, the making of hard and fast rules of conduct will not solve the problem. It is possible for the boys and girls themselves to draw up their own rules of conduct which will be much more readily accepted than those set up for them by the principal and teachers.

Planning and selecting materials for the programs are very important factors in the failure or success of this enterprise.

A calendar of special days will provide suggestions for assembly programs; for example history provides 29 such days in September, many of which would provide rich material for programs. A few selected ones are:

September 9—Admission Day.
September 14—The Writing of "The Star Spangled Banner" by Francis Scott Key.

September 17—Constitution Day.

September 25—Discovery of the Pacific by Balboa.

September 28-Birthday of Temperance Leader, Frances E. Willard. Similar events to be commemorated may be found in every month.

Another source of material may be found in the so-called "Special weeks" for example:

Education week.

Thrift week

Book week.

Music week.

The most successful assemblies, however, have grown out of units of work developed in the classroom and culminating in auditorium presentations.

Sometimes, the audience will be limited to a small group of two or three classes. At such a program the class constructs the scenery and the stage properties, makes the costumes, issues the invitations, and plans the programs. The opportunities for creative expression in such an activity are many indeed.

All school assembly programs should include much good music. Some should be devoted entirely to it. The victrola may be used for

¹ Harry C. McKown, Assembly and Auditorium Activities. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1930, pp. 51, 379-447.

numbers which the children are unable to present. The school orchestra is always appreciated and adds greatly to the assembly programs.

The value of community singing must not be overlooked. There should always be an abundance of that. Often, the whole life and character of the school can be changed through community singing, in which children learn to cooperate in giving expression to the beautiful experiences recorded in the words and music.

The methods of presentation are second only in importance to the selection of the material. Motion pictures and slides may be used in many types of program. Story telling, puppet shows, dramatization, pantomime, recitation, reading, debate, radio, tableaux, and exhibitions are only a few of the many forms the assembly program may take. In any school, there are not only teachers but children who are original and who should be permitted to contribute their ideas in order that the programs may be so interesting and varied that the pupils will look forward to them with interest and enthusiasm.

One of the best authorities on school assemblies believes that the future development of this activity will witness: (1) The members of the audience as participants in the program; (2) the program with a unified theme, which does not preclude variety; (3) the exchange by schools of assembly programs; (4) recognition by teachers and parents of the educational value of auditorium activities and the establishment of definite techniques for their evaluation; (5) definite training of teachers for leadership in this activity; (6) development of better methods for insuring educative outcomes of the auditorium activities.

Education is changing rapidly to meet the changing life of the community. Serious study must be given to the importance of the assembly program not as an administrative device or convenience, but as a functioning educational opportunity. The possibilities of the school assembly have just begun to be realized.

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¹ Ibid.: pp. 448-454.

THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM FOR SEVENTH EIGHTH GRADE PUPILS IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

JOHN L. COMPTON, Principal, and RUTH REESE, Counselor, Washington School, Bakersfield

SCOPE OF THE ARTICLE

The aims and purposes of this article are:

1. To show how a school program can be arranged in a school of approximately 400 seventh and eighth grade pupils to provide teacher time for a program of guidance without the addition of a teacher or counselor to the teaching staff.

2. To indicate what guidance activities a teacher-counselor may be able to carry out under these conditions.

The justification of a definite program of guidance for adolescent pupils is not within the scope of this article. A nation-wide survey¹ reveals an increase in guidance activities throughout the United States. The establishment of guidance programs in the public schools, the increased interest in guidance activities on the part of educational and allied associations, the publication of books dealing with guidance activities, the appearance of magazine articles on this subject, and the interest of state departments of education in programs of guidance indicate clearly that guidance has a definite place in American education.

Koos², Proctor and Ricciardi³, Briggs⁴, Spaulding⁵, Touton and Struthers 6, and other authorities consider guidance of major importance in the junior high school years. Progressive administrators, supervisors, and teachers recognize the need of a definite program of guidance in every school. The belief that guidance is a major function of the school is, therefore, assumed in the discussion which follows.

Any attempt to state the exact activities that should be included in a program of guidance is not within the scope of this article. No attempt is made to say what a complete guidance program should be or to state the exact activities in which a counselor should engage.

Morris M. Proffitt, "Trends in Educational Guidance," School Life. Washington: U. S. Offict of Education, Department of the Interior, Vol. 17, pp. 166-167, May, 1932.
 Leonard V. Koos, The Junior High School. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1927. Chapter II.

pp. 13-128.

3 William M. Proctor, and Nicholas Ricciardi, The Junior High School. Stanford University.

California: Stanford University Press, 1930.

4 Thomas H. Briggs, The Classroom Teacher. Chicago: The Classroom Teacher, Inc., 1928. pp.

Francis T. Spaulding, The Small Junior High School, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1927. Chapter II, p. 16.
Frank C. Touton, and Alice B. Struthers, Junior High School Procedure. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1926. pp. 27-49.

Opinions of school administrators make it apparent that there is no exact agreement in regard to the duties and responsibilities of a counselor. Perhaps these duties and responsibilities, delegated to the counselor, can not be fixed, but will vary according to the size of the school, the amount of time available for guidance activities, the clerical help provided, the administrative policies of the school system, the needs of the particular school and many other factors.

The purpose of this article is to describe an actual school situation in which a program of guidance has been initiated and to give a

general description of the activities of the teacher-counselor.

PRINCIPAL'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR ESTABLISHMENT OF GUIDANCE PROGRAM

The junior high school plan, with the 6-3-3-2 organization or with the 6-4-4 organization, has made possible a more completely diversified and effective program for adolescent pupils. Education in California has been reorganized to eliminate the seventh and eighth grades from the elementary school and to include them in the junior high school. There are, however, many school systems in California where grades seven and eight are still under elementary administration. The fact that these seventh and eighth grade pupils happen to be attending elementary schools does not relieve school administrators and principals from adapting the school program to meet the needs of these adolescent pupils. The type of school organization does not change the nature or the needs of children.

The provision for guidance activities in the program of the school is only a part of a larger problem which can be stated as follows: planning the routine administrative features of the school in harmony with the major functions of a school enrolling approximately 400

pupils in grades seven and eight.

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The fact that the organization of a school should be in harmony with the functions which it is required to perform must be accepted by all elementary and secondary school principals. The major functions of a school must be determined by the social and democratic philosophy underlying our American educational system. An examination of the objectives, listed by the several authorities in the junior high school field, reveals that they are in general agreement. From these several lists of objectives a principal may formulate a list for his particular school. These objectives must be modified to meet his particular situation and be in harmony with the purposes of a real child-centered school.

¹ In 1931-32, 51.7 per cent of the state enrollment in grades seven and eight in California public schools was in the junior high school.

ARRANGEMENT OF PROGRAM TO PROVIDE FOR GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES

Program making in all schools resolves itself into a matter of establishing the best procedure under the prevailing circumstances. Facts concerning the teaching staff, the pupils, the community to be served, the administrative policies of the superintendent's office, have have been carefully considered in making this program. This article is not concerned with the program, but with the way in which the program is arranged to provide time for counseling and guidance activities.

In the usual plan of program making, teachers of the academic subjects have unassigned periods during the time their home room classes are in manual arts and home economics. During these periods when teachers are not assigned to classes it is customary for them to be assigned to extra-curricular activities and routine administrative duties, such as safety, assembly programs, pupil welfare, school library, the examination and placement of new pupils, attendance check, parent-teacher association programs, student body organization, cafeteria, and various other extra-curricular duties.

The result of this type of organization is that the teacher does not have any free or unassigned periods. In many cases she would prefer to teach a class rather than to be made responsible for one of these extra-curricular duties. A program of this type, which permits each teacher to become familiar with some type of school activity aside from her regular work, has its commendable features but its weak point is that it does not give direction and continuity to the extra-curricular program of the school. It is a time loser for the principal. It requires constant supervision and contact with many teachers on the staff in order to regulate and coordinate various extra-curricular activities. The principal must train every teacher for her assigned extra-curricular duty, for which she may or may not have a particular bent. All teachers are not gifted alike for carrying out these extra duties assigned to them and the inevitable result is that some activities appear outstanding while others are thoroughly disliked. This fact means that there must be a periodical change of assignments and a repetition of directions and training periods for these particular duties.

Continuity and coordination of the extra-curricular and routine administrative activities, made possible by combining these free periods under one teacher, are important factors, but a still more important factor is that these so-called extra-curricular activities are after all the framework upon which a good portion of the guidance program can be based. They are the essential elements in a program of

guidance because they are the medium through which, in many instances, the pupil adjusts himself to the school.

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The school is operated on an eight period day with forty minutes in each period. There are two consecutive periods for art, manual training and home economics, and social studies. There are single periods for mathematics, English, physical education, music, library, guidance, club activities and assemblies. An adaptation of the platoon plan has been used; i. e., while four classes are in social studies periods, the second four classes are in mathematics and English classes, and the third four classes are taking special subjects of art, music, physical education, manual training and home economics. It is by means of this plan there is an accumulation of unassigned periods to one teacher, as the following table will show.

DISTRIBUTION OF PERIODS FOR EACH TEACHER¹

Teacher	Subject	Teach- ing periods	Home room periods	Club	Special assigned periods		
Н	Mathematics	35	3	2	Mala		
J	Mathematics	35	3	2			
В	English	35	3	2	graduone) .T		
K	English	35	3	2			
C	Social Studies	35	3	2			
D	Social Studies	35	3	2			
E	Social Studies	35	3	2			
F	Social Studies	35	3	2	Masterna 1353		
G	Art	34		101 (56)	6		
Н	Physical Education	34			6. First aid and corrective work		
I	Music	34			6. Special pupils		
L	Guidance	5	3	2	12. Library 18. Guidance		

¹ Manual arts and home economics teachers come to this school 3½ days each week and are not included in the above table.

This table shows that most of the unassigned periods are credited to one teacher. This teacher has available 21 periods for extra-curricular and guidance activities. Other teachers have been assigned slightly more than the normal teaching load, but are relieved of extra-curricular duties usually assigned to them.

The advantages of the program, in so for as guidance is concerned, are as follows:

 It places extra-curricular activities in the hands of one teacher, thereby making it possible to coordinate the extra-curricular program.

- 2. It decreases the amount of supervision for the principal, thereby saving time.
- 3. It fixes the responsibility for guidance upon one individual.
- 4. It relieves teachers of extra-curricular duties for which they may have little or no training.
- 5. It makes for a more careful attempt to adjust pupils to the school environment.
- 6. It makes possible a minimum testing program.
- 7. It provides an immediate check-up on dissatisfied or unhappy pupils and corrects the difficulty immediately.
- 8. It increases the ease of record keeping and makes records valuable as a means of pupil adjustment.
 - 9. It provides library supervision in a school where no librarian can be employed.
- 10. It relieves the principal of many routine duties.
- 11. It provides home room teachers with lessons on guidance and guidance activities for the home room periods.
- 12. It allows time for home calls.
- 13. It provides a definite check-up on all problem cases.

ARRANGEMENT OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

1. Grouping Pupils in Home Room Classes

The first work of the counselor is to group 400 pupils into 12 home room classes. In the light of present evidence, one can not be entirely in sympathy with so-called homogeneous grouping. However, pupils must be grouped for purposes of instruction. Some plan of grouping is inevitable. The following information was used as a basis for grouping:

- (a) Scores of the intelligence tests administered in the 6A grade.
- (b) Previous grades in school.
- (c) Health cards with accumulative records.
- (d) Teacher judgment.

At the close of the third week of the semester a survey was made to discover necessary adjustments of individual pupils. Pupils who were failing to make reasonable progress in their school activities were discovered. As a result of this survey 35 adjustments were made. Many of these changes were made for social as well as academic readjustments. Each pupil was informed of his proposed change and the reason for the change was carefully reviewed with him.

2. An Adequate System of Records, Quickly and Easily Accessible

In the organization of our filing system an attempt was made to arrange the information so that it could be effectively used. We kept records, with useful and easily accessible information, play at

important part in the guidance program. All records concerning health, attendance, standardized tests, conferences, letters from parents, breaches of discipline, reports of accident, and any other important information are placed in an accumulative file for each pupil. These accumulative files are arranged by home room classes which permits the principal, counselor, or any teacher to review all pupils in any one of the 12 home room groups.

Effective counseling of students is often delayed and adequate personal guidance rendered ineffective because records of important facts are not available. Upon opening the folder containing the records of any pupil, the principal, counselor, or teacher has a foundation of facts upon which to base his activities. This information is

especially valuable in conferences with parents.

3. The Orientation of New Pupils

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Because the program of the school is arranged as it is, time is given to one person, the counselor, to enroll new pupils properly. A new pupil coming to this school for the first time is not taken immediately to his regular class. He is assigned to the counselor who helps him to fill out his enrollment card. The enrollment card gives his chronological age, information about his grade placement, location of residence, and name of the parent. By this time, counselor and pupil have became acquainted and additional information is obtained about the previous school attended, home life, parents, habits of study, special interests and hobbies, and religious life. This information is recorded by the counselor on a regulation form and made a part of the accumulative record for the pupil. If his transfer or report card furnishes information sufficient for grade placement he is not tested. In case he has brought no record of his placement, a standardized test is given. He is allowed, with the advice of the counselor, to select his club activity and his elective subject. After the routine regulations of the school are thoroughly explained to him, he is taken to his home room where he is introduced to his home room teacher. Later he is introduced to a member of the home room class who is made responsible for acquainting him with other members of the class and assisting him to find his way about the building. As a result of this careful attention the new pupil is made to feel at home and is prepared to enter upon his regular duties.

4. Pupils Assigned to Vocational Classes

A vocational department is maintained in a nearby school. When it becomes apparent that a pupil is a candidate for the vocational school, a thorough investigation is made. Teachers are consulted, standardized tests are given, and the proposed change is thoroughly discussed with the pupil and his parents. Parents, who at first were

bitterly opposed to any change, have been thoroughly convinced that the change was best for their child. In some cases it has been necessary to take these parents and pupils to the vocational school and explain to them the advantages to be gained. As a result of this type of procedure, 21 pupils have been successfully placed in a school environment more conducive to the development of their abilities and more considerate of their particular needs.

5. The Testing Program

Standardized tests are now a part of the teaching equipment of our elementary schools. With the assistance of a part-time counselor it has been possible to carry on a minimum testing program in this school that would not otherwise have been possible. The counselor gives and scores the tests, thereby making the results uniform and saving much time and energy for the classroom teacher. The corrected tests are then returned to the classroom teacher in order that she may diagnose individual difficulties and apply remedial measures. The test results for each pupil are later filed with the individual's record.

6. Needed Studies Made

A number of studies have been made which enable teachers to deal more effectively with specific needs and abilities of pupils. Part-time counseling service has made possible these needed studies.

One of the first studies made was of a diagnostic nature intended to discover pupils who were failing to make satisfactory progress in their school activities and to discover also the reason for the lack of progress. Another study was made to discover the special talents of pupils. During one of the home room periods all pupils were asked a number of leading questions. Do you play a musical instrument? Do you sing? Do you give readings? Can you do solo dances? Can you entertain groups? The purpose of this study was to develop, through the various activities of the school, the special talents of pupils. Another study was made relative to pupil welfare. Its purpose was to discover pupils in the school who were in need of lunches or clothing. The names of needy pupils were obtained. Home visits were made by the counselor to determine the need. By means of help provided by the Parent-Teacher Association, service clubs, welfare agencies, and teachers, 15 children have been given lunches daily, and 30 children have been furnished with suitable clothing.

7. Student Body Organization and Assembly Programs

One of the most important duties of the counselor is to organize and guide the activities of the student body. The objectives of the student body organization are as follows:

(a) To make the pupil conscious of a responsibility toward the activities of the student body.

(b) To teach cooperation.

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(c) To give the pupil practice in controlling his actions.

(d) To teach pupils to respect law, order, and authority.

(e) To develop desirable social qualities.

(f) To introduce the pupil to democratic principles and practices.

The student body officers are the president, vice-president, secretary, marshal, and assistant marshal. These officers are elected by the student body at large. Before the election, however, home room guidance lessons are given in which the desirable qualities of candidates are discussed. Those who desire to run for student body offices are first reviewed by the outgoing members of the student body council. Later, these candidates are reviewed by the faculty of the school. The final recommendations on possible candidates, made by teachers and council members, are submitted to the principal for his approval.

The student body council is composed of the student body officers, one representative elected from each of the 12 home rooms and 8 members of the safety squad appointed by the marshal. This council meets twice weekly during the regular club periods and all problems pertaining to the student body government are discussed in these meetings. New problems are frequently referred to the home rooms through the 12 representatives. The representatives then bring back to the following council meeting the wishes and reactions of the various home room groups.

The problem of assuring proper conduct on the playground and in the hallways was referred to the Student Council. After several weeks of discussion the following plan was submitted to the principal for his approval. Warning slips were to be given to offenders. These slips were made in duplicate. One copy was given to the home room teacher and the other copy to the counselor. The copy which the counselor received was later placed in the pupil's accumulative record file. If the counselor feels that it is necessary, she reviews the offense with the council member and with the offender. The home room teacher is entirely responsible for whatever corrective measures are necessary. Another problem undertaken by the council was the formulation of a set of regulations governing the honor roll. It is interesting to note that citizenship records for the honor roll were given an equal weight with academic achievement.

Assemblies are held at least once a week. The planning of the program for the assemblies is given over to a committee headed by the vice-president of the student body. These programs are centered

around special days of historical significance; musical programs are provided by the music department including the orchestra and glee clubs, outside speakers are obtained and many times members of the student body present interesting and helpful material. All pupil talent is utilized and developed in these assemblies.

A welfare committee has been recently appointed. It is their duty to send letters of sympathy and good cheer to pupils and teachers who have been absent for long periods of time.

The counselor meets with the student council, acting as general adviser and parliamentarian. The counselor must be on her guard at all times to suggest carefully and not to dominate the pupils in the solving of their problems. She encourages them to assume responsibility and to participate in solving their problems in the best interests of the school.

8. Visits to and From Parents

Conferences with parents are most essential in any program of guidance. Because the program of classes has been so arranged, the counselor can make visits to the home. It is most important that the teacher and counselor know something about the home life and social life of the pupil. In almost every case parents have expressed their appreciation for the interest shown in their child. Many problems are solved when pupils realize that there is a direct contact between the home and the school.

Every parent is encouraged to visit the school. When the parent comes the counselor gives her full attention to the problems which are presented. The accumulative record for the pupil is produced showing attendance record, health record, records of tests, records of school progress, and whatever other information has been accumulated. As a result of this procedure, few complaints have been registered by parents.

9. Individual Conferences With Pupils

Hardly a day passes that the counselor does not have several conferences with individual pupils. These conferences are not disciplinary in nature, for no disciplinary measures are ever administered by the counselor. Therefore, pupils do not hesitate to go to her with their problems. The problems of the adolescent age are many and a little helpful advice at the right time may be the means of avoiding serious difficulty. Pupils who are in need of food or clothing are encouraged to consult the counselor, who, through her connections with the various welfare agencies in the community, is usually able to secure assistance.

10. Attendance

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The time allowed the counselor to check on the absences of pupils has been the means of keeping the attendance record between 98 and 99 per cent. The importance of attendance has been thoroughly discussed by the pupils during the home room periods. Telephone calls to absentees are made immediately. The school nurse is notified if it is not possible to telephone the home. The director of child welfare and attendance is notified in cases of apparently unnecessary absences. All excuses for absences are placed in the accumulative record files.

11. Orientation of Incoming Classes

It is most important that incoming classes be introduced to their new surroundings in the correct manner. This can be accomplished by having the counselor prepare guidance lessons particularly suited to the needs of the incoming pupils. The student council appoints a welcoming committee. One member of this committee is appointed to give the welcoming talk to the ncoming classes. Guides are assigned to the new classes to direct them about the building and to answer questions about the schedule of classes, location of rooms, and general regulations of the school.

12. Home Room Guidance Lessons

The preparation of guidance lessons for the use of the home room teacher is one of the most important phases of the program. It is through this unit of the program that the policies and ideals of the school are developed and stressed. Most of the lessons are prepared in such a way as to invoke discussion on the part of the pupils. The arrangement of the school program has made way for one individual, the counselor, to develop these lessons. Many of the guidance activities deal with the problems common to all pupils and there is an economy of time by counseling these pupils in groups. Guidance lessons which are presented weekly have been along the following lines: the selection and duties of council members; the selection of candidates for student body offices; the care of school equipment; how our student government operates; orderly passing; conduct in assemblies; traffic regulations; how to receive visitors in our school and in our classrooms; how to use the library; the organization of the home room; personal charm, and personal appearance.

It is difficult to measure the results of the home room guidance activities. The general morale of the school and the conduct of pupils in their various activities indicate the effectiveness of the guidance program. We can lay a foundation for pupils upon which

they must build their own characters.

SUMMARY

1. The type of administrative organization of a school system does not change the natures or the needs of children, nor does it relieve the principal of any of his responsibilities.

2. The program of any school should be made in harmony with

the major functions of the school.

3. Guidance is one of the school's most significant responsibilities.

4. A program of guidance can be provided without additional cost in an elementary school by a proper plan of organization.

WHAT DO ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRA-TORS CONSIDER IMPORTANT FACTORS WHEN THEY SELECT NEW TEACHERS?

Hugh M. Bell, Director of Research and Placement, and Lloyd D. Bernard, Director of Teacher Training—Chico State Teachers College

In programs of teacher training and placement, need is frequently felt for the judgments of elementary school principals, supervisors, and superintendents with regard to what they consider to be important factors in the selection of new teachers. This study was carried out in order to provide this type of information. The list of factors included was selected from various teacher rating scales and from an analysis of teacher placement procedures. The final list included:

Health
General scholarship
Social participation in community
Classroom management or discipline
Religious affiliations
Application letters
Knowledge of subject matter
Initiative and resourcefullness
Ability to carry out instructions

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Appointment bureau credentials

Personal conduct outside school

Cooperation with fellow workers

Ability to handle routine reports

Personal interviews

Grade in practice teaching

Teaching experience

Ability to accept criticism

Dress and appearance

Each factor was stated in the form of a question in order to make its meaning clear; for example: "How much importance do you assign to the credentials sent out from the Appointment Bureau?" After each question the administrator was asked to indicate its importance to him in the selection of a new teacher by underlining the words "Very Great," "Some," or "Little." Each individual was asked to sign his name and indicate the position which he held. An explanatory letter stating the purpose of the study and signed by the writers was sent with the questionnaire.

One hundred and eighty-five copies were sent out and 112 replies, or 60 per cent, were returned. A frequency distribution of the replies was made. In order to bring out the importance of certain factors in the selection of new teachers, an arbitrary weight of three was assigned

to those items the importance of which was judged as being "Very Great," two to those judged as of "Some" importance, and one to those judged as being of "Little" importance.

The 18 factors judged may be divided into two groups: personal factors and professional factors. Those falling in the personal factor group have been marked with the asterisk. Such factors as health, religious affiliations, dress and appearance, etc., are characteristics of the individual personality. Factors such as general scholarship, grade in practice teaching, and knowledge of subject matter, are factors closely associated with the professional training program.

Table I is a summary of the 112 replies. Initiative and resource-fulness stands out as the factor considered to be of greatest importance in this list. One hundred and ten administrators indicated that it was of "Very Great" importance, one, "Some" importance, and one, "Little" importance. Its composite score of 333 gives it a ranking of one.

TABLE I

Elementary School Administrators' Evaluation of Factors in Selection of Teachers

Name of factor	a d	Frequency	() III o yes		
	Very	Some	Little	Compo- site score	Rank
China cabinata	110		0 // 10	333	,
Initiative and resourcefulness*	108	1	0	332	2
Cooperation with fellow workers*	107	5	0	331	3.5
Ability to accept criticism*Ability to carry out instructions*	107	5	0	331	3.5
Health*	105	7	0	329	5
Classroom management (discipline)	95	17	0	319	6
Personal interviews*	93	19	0	317	7
Knowledge of subject matter	79	33	0	303	8
Dress and appearance*	75	37	TITLE O	299	9
Personal conduct outside school*	77	30	5	296	10
Ability to handle routine reports	54	48	10	268	11
Social participation in community*	38	70	4	258	12
Appointment bureau credentials	34	67	11	247	13
General scholarship	32	70	10	246	14
Grade in practice teaching	17	82	13	228	15
Teaching experience	13	78	21	216	16
Application letters	P37 4	63	45	183	17
Religious affiliations*	0.1	29	83	141	18

^{*}Personal factors.

Cooperation with fellow workers was ranked second, ability to accept criticism and ability to carry out instructions received the same composite score and tied for third in rank. Health with a composite score of 329, was considered to be fifth in importance. These five factors have a difference of only four points in the composite ranking, varying from 333 to 329, indicating that these administrators considered all five of them to be of very great importance in the selection of new teachers.

The median ranking of the personal factors group is 6, while the median ranking in the professional factors group is 13.5. The great difference in ranking assigned these two types of factors is clearly indicative of the far greater relative importance accorded the personal factors by the administrators.

The factors wherein the teacher training institution had an opportunity to indicate its evaluation of the candidate, namely; appointment bureau credentials, general scholarship and grade in practice teaching, are consistently rated of little importance by these

administrators.

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The factor of personal interviews was consistently rated high. We conclude, therefore, that these elementary school administrators prefer to select new teachers by means of personal interviews, during which they judge the fitness of the candidate in terms of personal factors rated consistently high in this study.

Two implications of this investigation are apparent.

1. Since the teacher training institution plays a rather minor part in the placement of beginning teachers, and since administrators seem to consider professional factors of less importance than personal factors in the selection of teachers, it seems necessary that administrators recognize and assume proper responsibility for the training of teachers in service. Furthermore, administrators can not in fairness attach full responsibility to the teacher training institution for inadequately trained persons failing to measure up to their expectations in professional ability when such persons are selected largely on the basis of personal factors.

If teacher training institutions are to render a more effective service in connection with the placement of teachers, more emphasis must be accorded to personal factors in the methods of selecting

candidates employed by teacher training program.

A COOPERATIVE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, AND EDU-CATIONAL SURVEY OF ROSEVILLE

Hugh M. Bell, Director of Research and Extension, Chico State Teachers College and Warren T. Eich, District Superintendent of Schools, Roseville, California

As a part of the extension program of the Chico State Teachers College a series of surveys have been made of school districts in this section of the state. These investigations have been carried out through the cooperation of individuals working for various degrees and credentials and were under the immediate direction of the college. In all cases the students permitted to obtain college extension credit were carefully chosen. District superintendents, principals, and supervisors with from two to ten years experience, with whom the college was well acquainted, were selected for this work. The purpose of these studies was two-fold: first, to obtain reliable data concerning the social, economic, and educational conditions in school districts served by this college; and second, to provide a practical type of extension course which would enable an elementary school administrator to become more familiar with conditions in his district.

The survey form used in these investigations is divided into three parts: Part I, a study of conditions in the county as a whole; Part II, a study of the county school system; and Part III, a study of the school district. The section dealing with the county as a whole includes a study of the geographical location, natural resources, agriculture, industries, and cities of the county. The section on the county school system is a study of its organization, administration, and personnel. The part dealing with the analysis of the school district considers such factors as its organization, school costs, testing program, school staff, and the school plant. The school plant section covers a detailed analysis of the buildings including accessibility, site, fire protection, janitor service, lighting, water supply, lavatories basement, heating system, ventilation, equipment, and the classrooms. School building and school site score cards are also included as a part of this section.

In the Roseville Survey only Part III forms were used since the study was limited to the school district. The following is a sample of part of a section of this survey form furnished as a guide to the person making the study:

Section III. Analysis of the School District

A. School Staff

- Give the number of teachers in each school for each year during the last five years.
 - 2. Who makes the selection of teachers? How?
 - List the names of the teachers, the grades they teach, their salaries, their training, and the number of years they have taught.
 - 4. Which teachers are on tenure?
- Is there a salary schedule in the school? Include a copy of such schedule.

Detailed written directions covering every section of the survey were provided. Instructions were given to secure actual data in every case rather than to give a personal judgment.

The Roseville Survey was begun in September, 1932 and completed in March, 1933. The District Superintendent conducted the survey under the supervision of the Extension Director of the Chico State Teachers College. Numerous conferences were held at which time the plans of organization were formulated. The plan of the survey was then presented to the elementary teachers of Roseville at one of their regular meetings. It was found that some phases of the survey could be worked out as projects with pupils in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades in social studies. For example, the survey called for a study of the distances that pupils traveled to attend each school. This problem was attacked by upper grade pupils under the direction of their teachers. The information was assembled, organized, and checked by the pupils and teachers, and turned in to the superintendent who made the final check. The pupils also counted the number of windows, the number of seats in each room and made other enumerations. More technical phases of the survey were assigned to some of the teachers who were interested in cooperating in the study.

The investigation of the social and economic conditions in the city was made through personal contacts by the District Superintendent with business men, churches, industrial plants, lodges, and city officials. In nearly all cases excellent cooperation was forthcoming and some fine contacts for the school were made.

RESULTS OF THE SURVEY

Since the information collected in Roseville is chiefly local in character it will not be set forth at length here. However a few of the problems studied will be mentioned in order to indicate the character and extent of the survey. Studies of elementary school

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conditions were made of the number of days school was in session over a ten year period, number of teachers employed each year over a ten year period, cost of substitute teaching over a five year period, the bonded indebtedness of the district, assessed valuation per unit and current expenditure per unit over a ten year period, enrollment and average daily attendance over a ten year period, and a large amount of other information concerning school organization and administration.

Studies of social conditions in the city of Roseville were made including the racial constitution of the population, church membership, club and fraternal order membership, community enterprises, city government, recreational facilities, health services, and other data.

Economic conditions were analyzed by studies of the assessed valuation of the city, indebtedness, number of business houses, total bank deposits, number of automobiles registered, percentage of paved streets, estimated true wealth of the city, average monthly pay roll, industrial resources, and transportation facilities.

The survey was summarized in written form and a copy presented to the Board of Education in Roseville and to the Chico State Teachers College. The report included 36 charts, graphs and tables, a large amount of descriptive information, and recommendations for educational improvements in the Roseville District.

Some very practical results have come from this more or less informal type of school survey. In the first place, it has enabled those responsible for the administration of elementary schools to obtain a large amount of valuable information concerning their district with little or no expense to them. In the second place, it has provided the Chico State Teachers College with a large amount of data which is of value in its teacher training and placement programs. Third, it has furnished the college with a very satisfactory type of extension course enabling the college to keep in close touch with the school districts which it serves.

At the present time some 30 of these surveys have been completed. Twenty-two are of one-room school districts. It is planned to use these data in a college course during the senior year where individual students will make comparative studies of educational conditions in different school districts in this section.

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A SURVEY OF TIME CONSUMED IN CLERICAL WORK IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

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WINTAUTHE TRATERIANCE TO CLASSIFIC CONCROTALS.

HENRY WALTER MAGNUSON, Assistant Director, Department of Research and Curriculum, Oakland Public Schools

When the student of educational problems today glances through the literature in the field of elementary school administration, he often runs across the phrase "the elementary school principal—a glorified clerk." In an endeavor to secure some reliable and fairly representative data relative to this question, a survey of time consumed in clerical work in the elementary schools of Oakland was made. The chief purpose of this investigation was to analyze the amount and kinds of clerical work performed in the elementary schools in an effort to establish an accurate basis for the assignment of clerical assistance, and in addition to discover, if possible, opportunities for further economies in the administration of elementary schools.

APPROACH TO THE PROBLEM

The procedure followed the line of a job analysis which implied the investigation and evaluation of the actual situation. In order to expedite matters, especially in the initial approach, certain schools representative of each of four classifications were selected for visitation. The schools were paired on the basis of enrollment, number of teachers employed, and diversity of administrative personalities—age, experience, sex, etc. Schools were paired under the following four groups: First, those schools having fewer than 12 teachers in their personnel; second, those having 12 to 15 teachers; third, those having 16 to 19 teachers; fourth, those having 20 or more teachers. Twenty-six elementary schools were selected for visitation. To each of these schools the following letter was sent:

Conferences were then held with each of the principals of the 26 representative schools. From these personal conferences a time chart was devised. All of the elementary school principals were requested to indicate on this chart the time, in hours and minutes, spent on the several clerical activities. Appended to this chart was this explanatory letter:

¹ The questions are listed on pages, 47 and 48 together with typical responses.

In an endeavor to secure an accurate and comprehensive picture of the clerical demands on elementary school principals, we are asking you to fill in on the enclosed chart the approximate time utilized for clerical tasks each day of the week, November 14th to 19th, inclusive.

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If you have a clerk at the present time, will you have her indicate her time separately on the chart. The classification of clerical activities has been made

very general in order to simplify your recording.

If some of your clerical tasks are nor covered by the classifications listed, please indicate in the blanks marked 'Additional Tasks' the type of activity and the time spent. Will you record also in the space marked 'Monthly Reports' the time utilized each statistical month in the compilation of reports.

Please indicate the approximate time in hours or minutes. Will you record the time only of those activities which you feel you could delegate to an efficient clerk.

A summary of the data with respect to time spent on the several clerical tasks is presented in Table I which shows the range of time and average amount of time spent on these tasks.

TABLE I

Range and Average Number of Hours Spent on the Several

Clerical Tasks

Activity 1. Child accounting and attend-	nm =1	Ra	Average Hours-minute			
	From Hours-minutes				To Hours-minutes	
2. Correspondence and filing	211115	25	13	50	3	04
3. Inventory and requisitions		20	19	20	5	50
4. Typing and mimeographing						
bulletins, tests, etc		30	11	00	3	36
5. School treasurer	1	10	4	40	1	22
6. P. T. A. and Dads' Club		15	10	00	2	08
7. Lost and found	DATE OF THE REAL PROPERTY.	05	1	05		23
8. Administering first aid		05	1	25		25
9. Issue street car passes; requests	4					
for clothing		03	1	10		15
10. Stock room duties in addition						
to 3		10	3	45		57
11. Miscellaneous		25	11	40	3	10
Total of all activities for the		2				
week, November 14-19, 1932	4	35	55	25	24	10
Total of all activities less "3"						
(Inventory and Requisitions) plus						
1/4 time spent on monthly reports	4	01	40	46	18	20

The following responses to the inquiry are fairly representative of the personal conferences which were held with the 26 principals selected:

1. What duties are you performing which are purely clerical in character?

The number of duties reported, ranged from ten to one hundred and twenty-five.

2. Do the clerical tasks necessitate your rather close attendance at the office?

Where there was no clerk, the answer was "yes."

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3. What clerical work is required of you by the P. T. A. and Dads' Clubs?

Considerable variation in the amount of clerical work furnished these organizations was reported—the chief factor in determining the amount of work required depended to a large extent on the character of the community.

- 4. Would part-time clerical assistance be sufficient to take care of all the tasks which might be delegated to an efficient clerk? In general, the response was "yes."
- What tasks do you feel you should perform? Principals felt they should take care of all matters necessitating administrative decision and all contacts with parents.
 - 6. How much supervision and inspection of clerical work would be necessary by a principal just receiving clerical help how much responsibility can be safely transferred?

Very little supervision of clerical work would be necessary if civil service assistance were furnished; the use of student help especially on a one-semester basis necessitates from two to three weeks' instruction and careful supervision at the most critical time of the school year—the beginning of each semester.

7. Provided adequate clerical assistance be furnished, are there any specific hours that you must remain in your office?

Most principals desired to remain in their offices from 9:00 to 9:30 a.m., and from 1:00 to 1:30 p.m., to take care of enrollment, attendance, and other matters concerned with the beginning of each half day.

8. How much valuable personal contact with parents and children is sacrificed by the delegation of routine duties to a clerk?

Principals agreed that no valuable contact would be lost if the clerk furnished was sufficiently mature and experienced to distinguish between routine matters and those requiring the attention of the principal.

9. What records are kept? How? Can any be satisfactorily eliminated?

The principals visited expressed general satisfaction with the existing records and made but few suggestions relative to minimizing record procedure; the general opinion was, however, that attendance duties consume time noticeably out of proportion to other clerical tasks.

- 10. Is there any uniformity in organization or routine in the performance of clerical tasks by the various schools?
 These visitations revealed a decided lack of uniformity among the schools.
- 11. What community activities now performed in the schools may be "given back" to the organization (P. T. A., Dads' Clubs)?

Where an individual in a community had been trained in typing, cutting of stencils, and mimeographing, she was asked if she would take over these clerical tasks; in communities less fortunate, this work, of necessity, must be performed in the schools.

12. Can the clerical work be so arranged that it can be taken care of any time during the day or is it necessary that the clerk be in attendance during the entire day?

Except for matters requiring immediate action, such as enrollment and first aid, the clerical work could be taken care of any time during the day.

WHAT CONCLUSIONS MAY WE DRAW FROM THIS STUDY?

- 1. The data reveal great variation in the amount of time consumed in clerical tasks. This may be accounted for in part by:
 - a. The training, experience, clerical efficiency, and aptitude of the principal. Some principals have had clerical or business training; others have a natural aptitude for routine and accurate recording.
 - b. The character of the community. Some communities, because of the transient character of the population, necessitate constant enrollment and transfer.
 - c. The comprehensiveness of the principal's administrative and educational program. Considerable variation exists between the schools in the amount of typed and mimeographed material provided for classroom aids.
- 2. The data show almost no relationship between the size of enrollment and the time reported utilized for clerical functions.
- 3. The conferences with the principals reveal general dissatisfaction with the student clerk especially the student clerk furnished on a one-semester basis inasmuch as considerable time is consumed in the education of a clerk for such a short period of service, and during this period of training, but little, if any, responsibility can be transferred with safety.
- 4. Data exhibit an *urgent* need for some uniformity and minimization of clerical functions in the elementary schools.

